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ABSTRACT

One of the purposes of the North Central Rural Sociology Sub-committee on Farm Organizations is to serve as a mechanism through which statewide studies of farm organizations in Wisconsin and Michigan would be partially coordinated. To communicate both the knowledge needs and the accumulated literature on farmers' organizations and movements to other researchers is the purpose of this bulletin. Part I of the bulletin comprises 3 essays that outline the sub-committee members' views on needed research. The first 2 essays, "Some Needs in Farm Organization Research" and "Needed Research on Farmers' Movements," deal primarily with research that would contribute to the development of basic sociological knowledge and theory on organizations and movements. The third essay, "Applied Sociological Research on Farm Organizations and Farmers' Movements," focuses specifically on research of practical utility to those concerned with building viable farm organizations. Part II of the bulletin is "A Bibliography of U.S. and Canadian General Farm Organizations and Farmers' Movements," consisting of 998 items published between 1846 and 1969. The bibliography is alphabetized in a single list by author, but a "Title Index" and an "Index of Place, Person, Specific Organization, and Specific Movement Names in Titles" are also provided. (JH)

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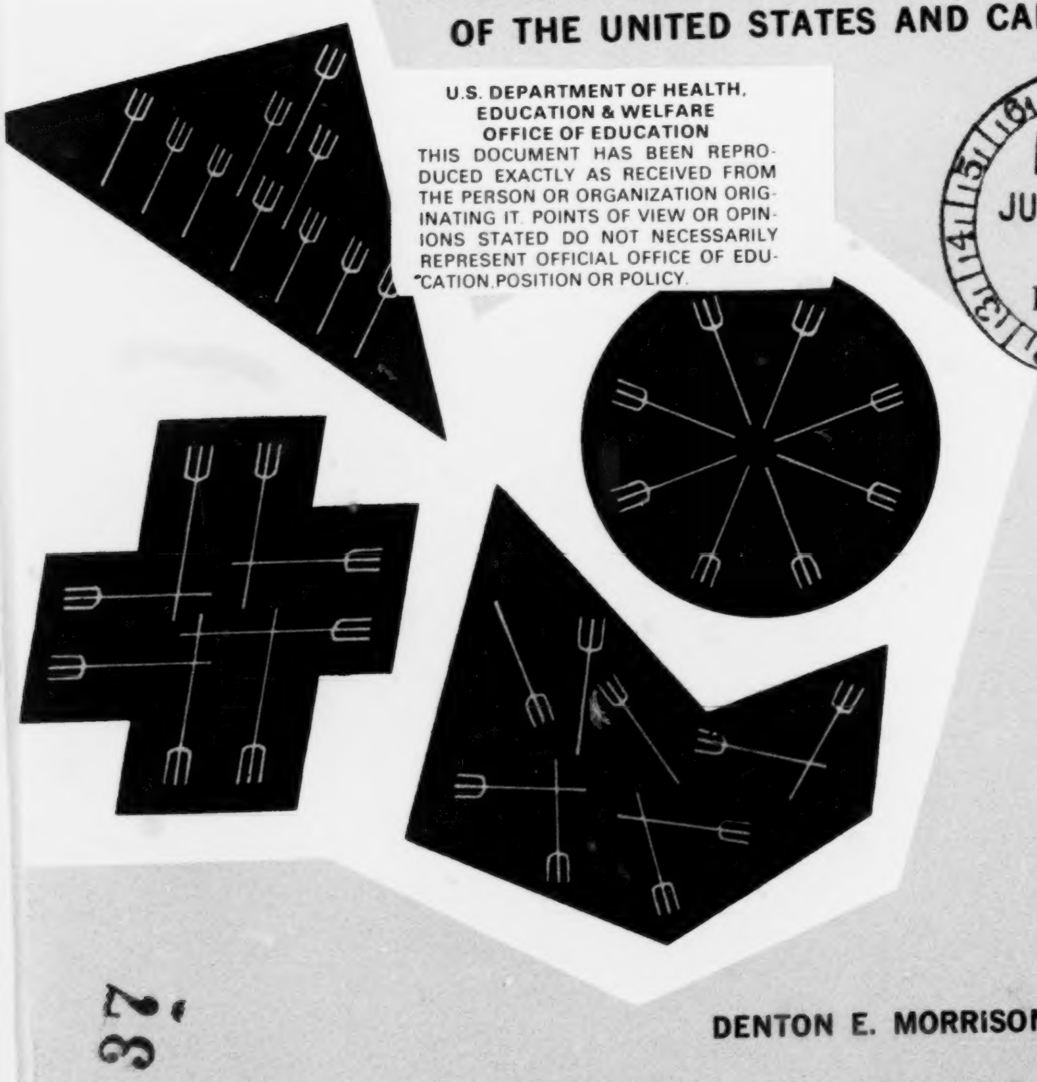
Farmers' Organizations and Movements

RESEARCH NEEDS AND A BIBLIOGRAPHY OF THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA



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Farmers' Organizations and Movements:
Research Needs and a Bibliography of the United States and Canada

Denton E. Morrison, Editor

Sponsored by the agricultural experiment stations of Alaska, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Ohio, South Dakota, and Wisconsin; and the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

The North Central Regional Sociology (NCRS-5)
Sub-Committee on Farm Organizations:

James R. Hundley (deceased), Michigan State University
Donald Johnson, University of Wisconsin, Past Chairman
Harvey Schweitzer, University of Illinois
W. Keith Warner, University of Wisconsin
Denton E. Morrison, Michigan State University, Chairman

In Memoriam

James R. Hundley, Jr., one of the Sub-Committee's members, died of cancer on November 3, 1967, at the age of 28. In addition to his contributions to the Sub-Committee and to this publication, James Hundley made noteworthy contributions to the literature on farmers' movements, as indicated by the Bibliography references in this bulletin which bear his name (326; 452; 453; 454; 538).

The enthusiasm he communicated for research on the topic of this bulletin was in no small measure responsible for the Sub-Committee's decision to undertake the project. He also influenced the research directions of Sub-Committee members.

The Sub-Committee members share with the sociological profession a keen sense of loss in James Hundley's passing.

Preface

In late 1964 the North Central Rural Sociology Sub-Committee on Farm Organizations was formed with Donald Johnson of the University of Wisconsin as its first chairman. One of the immediate and specific purposes of the Sub-Committee was to serve as a mechanism through which statewide studies of farm organizations in Wisconsin and Michigan would be partially coordinated.[1] Further, the Sub-Committee served from the beginning as a vehicle to facilitate a general discussion of research needs and to share and discuss literature references. From these initial activities we became convinced that both the knowledge needs and the accumulated literature on farmers' organizations and movements were of sufficient import to warrant a formal Sub-Committee project to communicate these needs and references to other researchers. This bulletin is the result.

In compiling the list of references we have received valuable help from many sources. Allan Steeves and John Steeves, research assistants at Michigan State University, did much early library searching. Later these tasks and the checking and editing of references and manuscript were done by Valerie Restivo and Judy Bennisato, student assistants at Michigan State. James Shideler of the Agricultural History Center at the University of California at Davis suggested many new references and provided useful advice on techniques of compilation as did Morton Rothstein of the Department of History at the University of Wisconsin, Madison. John Schlebecker of the Smithsonian Institution provided similar help. Charles Press of Michigan State University made available his extensive list of references on the Nonpartisan League. Joe Bohlen of Iowa State University provided a copy of Louis Schmidt's list of references on the farmers' movement in the United States (802), from which many references were drawn. For many of the theses and dissertations as well as the references on the Grange we are indebted to Dennis Nordin's lists (662; 663). In addition, many persons from various academic disciplines in the United States and Canada were kind enough to peruse an earlier list of references and make suggestions or otherwise encourage our enterprise.

A special debt is owed to the Farm Foundation for its support of the Sub-Committee. The Agricultural Experiment Station at Michigan State University is also acknowledged for providing research assistance and clerical support. Finally, credit is due to Dorothy Tervo, Valerie Restivo and Mary Wilson for their patient and capable typing of various drafts of the manuscript, and to Nancy Hammond and Ann Ries for editorial assistance.

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[1] The following items in the Bibliography have resulted from these studies: 295; 401; 402; 466; 467; 480; 484; 627; 628; 630; 631; 632; 681, 734; 735; 737; 940; 925; 941.

Denton E. Morrison, Chairman
NCRS-5 Sub-Committee on Farm Organizations
Department of Sociology
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May, 1969

Introduction

DENTON E. MORRISON
Michigan State University

It is common to hear farmers' problems explained by the claim that farmers are not organized. The great oversimplification of such an explanation is shown in the extensive quantity and scope of farmers' past and present organizational activity documented in the Bibliography comprising Part II of this bulletin. The list, moreover, contains only references on general farmers' movements and organizations and excludes writings dealing specifically with commodity groups and cooperatives. A list of the latter categories would be extensive. Breimyer, for instance, reports that, in the 1962-1965 period, 22,651 U. S. farmers' cooperative associations had nearly twenty-two million members or participants, most of whom were nonfarmers (107:136).

Tontz estimates that in 1960 the three largest U. S. general farm organizations (The American Farm Bureau Federation, The National Farmers' Union, and The National Grange) had over two and one-quarter million family members or participants (905:5). The number of individuals who are members would be much higher. Given the existence of about 4 million farms in 1960,[1] assuming an average of one family per farm, and allowing for the fact that many farm organization members are not actively farming, the crude indication would seem to be that members of about half the U. S. farm families belong to a general farm organization.

One possible conclusion from the above figures is that not enough farmers are organized. It is well established, however, that the farmers most likely to be farm organization members have more education and operate larger, more productive farms than nonmembers (629:48-55; 738:281; 57:157). Regardless of their limited number, those who become involved in farm organizations would presumably be the ones most able to organize themselves effectively. Those observers who agree that not enough farmers are organized would probably also agree, however, that the more crucial problem is that those who are members of organizations are not organized enough.

Concern with increasing the *effectiveness* of farm organizations rather than with further increasing their number or the number of members was shown by the Commission on Country Life in 1909. Initially, the Commission described the farmers' situation in words that still ring true today: ". . . The farmer is almost necessarily handicapped in the development of his business because his capital is small, and the volume of his transactions limited; and he usually stands practically alone against organized interests. In the general readjustment of modern life due to the great changes in manufactures and commerce, inequalities and discriminations have arisen, and naturally the separate man suffers most."[2] But the Commission also noted that in agriculture "there is a multitude of clubs, and associations for social, educational, and business organizations; and the great national organizations are effective. But the farmers are nevertheless relatively unorganized."[3] Later in the Commission's report this observation was reiterated and expanded slightly:

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[1] National Advisory Commission on Food and Fiber, (July, 1967), *Food and Fiber for the Future*, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.: 155.

> While there are very many excellent agricultural cooperative organizations of many kinds, the farmers nearly everywhere complain that there is still a great dearth of association that really helps them in buying and selling and developing their communities. . . . Farmers seem to be increasingly feeling the pressure of the organized interests that sell to them and buy from them.[4]

The underlying notion of the Commission is clear and is as valid today as in 1909: On the whole, farmers are organized in ways that are relatively ineffective, that is, ineffective in comparison with organizations of laborers, professionals, and other businessmen.

It is a paradox that, while sociology is substantially concerned with the study of social organization, relatively few of the studies in our Bibliography provide analyses from the sociological perspective or employ the concepts and research tools of modern social science. Mostly, the literature consists of historical-descriptive case studies of organizations or their leaders, or essays in which the conversion of the reader to particular philosophical or ideological points of view is the paramount goal.

This lack is not a valid indicator of the importance of the analysis of farm organizations to sociology, nor of the potential contribution of sociological analysis to farm organizations. Analyses of farm organizations could contribute to fundamental theoretical issues in sociology just as do studies of industrial organizations, trade unions, hospitals, welfare organizations, military organizations, and the like. And, just as sociological research has made important applied contributions to these organizations, such research has great potential for contributing to the solution of some of the practical problems of farm organizations. Moreover, sociologists have recognized both the importance and the lack of research on farmers' organization for some time (932; 479).

The lack of sociological research on farm organizations reflects the relatively small proportion of resources that colleges of agriculture have devoted

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[2] Commission on Country Life, (1911), *Report of the Commission on Country Life*, Sturgis & Walton, New York: 18-19. (Re-edition of original report of 1909).

[3] *Ibid.*, 27.

[4] *Ibid.*, 130-131.

to sociological research generally. Also, both college of agriculture administrators and rural sociologists have been reluctant to become involved in research on topics of potential political implication and controversy. Clearly such behavior has in the long run proved neither politic nor responsible. Farmers are becoming painfully aware that their political power, both in voting numbers and in elected representatives, is declining. Further, they recognize their own economic problems are caused partly by the way other highly organized segments of the economy such as labor can increase farm costs.

Farmers are searching for improved modes of organization to help them relate adequately to a society in which the fortunes of individuals are increasingly tied to the fortunes of large scale organizations—voluntary and otherwise. In a recent state-wide sample survey in Michigan, for instance, 88 percent of the farm operators agreed that, "If you want to solve agriculture's problems it's the production and marketing system as a whole that needs to be changed, not just the practices of individual farmers" (629:57).

Moreover, farmers are increasingly looking to the colleges of agriculture for help and guidance in achieving new modes of organization. Research must be an integral part of the response of the colleges of agriculture. Research will, of course, require support, perhaps even a partial diversion of support away from other research areas. Strong support is, however, justified.

Colleges of business and schools of labor and industrial relations are much more concerned with the *organizational* problems of their sectors of the economy than are colleges of agriculture. Colleges of agriculture have stressed individual accomplishments through better farm management and technological efficiency. Research and extension efforts on the biological and technological aspects of agriculture have accounted for tremendous progress in solving the problems of food supply, but they have not solved the problems of the vast majority of those who produce food for a livelihood. There is optimism that this disturbing fact is receiving increased recognition by those who develop policies for and fund agricultural research. The recent *National Program of Research for Agriculture* recommends a substantial increase in research on "problems of people and their organizations," an increase disproportionately larger than that recommended for technical and other research.[5]

This is not to imply that either organized efforts or sociological research contributions to these efforts will be helpful in solving the problems of a majority of farmers. There are substantial surplus and impoverished human resources in farming and it is doubtful that voluntary organizations will do much to help make the occupation of farming an economically viable one for this group.[6] Some recent research, however, shows that "it is clearly only farms with sales of $20,000 or more than can come near providing family incomes sufficient to permit a level of participation in a market for consumer goods that is consistent with American standards."[7] Only about 14 percent of U. S. commercial farms fall into this category.[8] Dissatisfaction in agriculture is by no means limited to farmers with small, marginal operations. In the Michigan study already mentioned, two-thirds of the farmers with gross sales above the median for all farmers in the sample were, taking their labor and investment into account, dissatisfied with their previous year's income. On the whole, those dissatisfied farmers who engage in militant, organized, protest actions have average or above average socioeconomic levels (631:416-422). That organized efforts are not necessary for some engaged in agriculture or possible for others is no reason for reluctance to support and engage in relevant research.

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[5] United States Department of Agriculture and State Agricultural Experiment Station Task Force, (October, 1966), *A National Program of Research for Agriculture*, Report of a Study sponsored jointly by the Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges and the United States Department of Agriculture, United States Department of Agriculture, Washington, D. C.: 186-188.

Part I of this bulletin then is comprised of three essays that outline the Sub-Committee members' views on needed research. We do not necessarily provide specific and concrete guidance to be followed by researchers. Rather, we provide stimuli for generating an interest in research on farm organizations and farmers' movements. While we aim our statements mainly at those professionals and graduate students who actually do research, we hope our statements will have meaning for those who fund, direct, and use research, and will result in a fruitful dialogue between these parties and researchers.

The statements of research needs necessarily overlap, but they are made from three somewhat distinctive perspectives. The first two essays, "Some Needs in Farm Organization Research," and "Needed Research on Farmers' Movements," deal primarily with research that would contribute to the development of basic sociological knowledge and theory on organizations and movements. Such research often has clear practical implications, which are briefly explored in the essays. The distinction between "organizations" and "movements" is critically discussed in the second essay and some issue is taken with it, but the distinction is too well developed in sociological theory and research to disregard easily. The third essay, "Applied Sociological Research on Farm Organizations and Farmers' Movements," focuses specifically on research of practical utility to those concerned with building viable farm organizations. Just as theoretically oriented research has practical implications, this essay shows that applied research can both contribute to and draw upon theory.

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[6] National Advisory Commission on Food and Fiber, *op. cit.*, 183-195; see also, National Advisory Commission on Rural Poverty, (1967), *The People Left Behind*, United States Government Printing Office, Washington, D. C.: espec. 141-146.

[7] Ruttan, Vernon W., (December, 1966), "Agricultural Policy in an Affluent Society," *Journal of Farm Economics*, 48, 5:1113.

[8] *Ibid.*, 1114.

Part II of the Bulletin is "A Bibliography of U. S. and Canadian General Farm Organizations and Farmers' Movements." In the summer of 1967 we submitted a list of about 200 references to interested sociology colleagues as well as to scholars in political science, history, and agricultural economics and asked for additional entries, corrections, and suggestions. These persons responded generously and the annotated bibliography we originally planned was impossible as a short-term project with the available resources.[9] We hope the Bibliography will be of use to scholars, but we are fully aware of its inadequacies. We are confident it omits many pertinent items, and has incomplete and probably inaccurate information on some of those included. We have not been able to put our hands on every item. We solicit additions, corrections, and suggestions from readers.

Arbitrarily we have limited the list to items from the U. S. and Canada. It is hard to delineate precisely what is to be included under "general" organizations and movements, but we excluded vast literature on farmers' cooperatives and commodity associations, except as the cooperatives are tied to organizations with broader goals. Fortunately, a recent bibliography on cooperatives is available.[10] Additionally, we excluded literature on the general organizations in the popular press and in the periodicals of the organizations, except as this literature is of general historic import. Since the relationship between farmers' organizations and movements and the politics and policies of agriculture is often a close one, we have been fairly liberal in including items on the latter topics and on agrarian reform generally.

Only *parts* of some of the book-length items on the list deal with farmers' organizations or movements. Where these parts are specifically known and can be efficiently indicated in the reference, we have done so. The Bibliography itself is alphabetized in a single list by author and is not organized by sub-topics such as "Grange," "Farmers' Alliance," and "Iowa." However, the "Title Index" and the "Index of Place, Person, Specific Organization, and Specific Movement Names in Titles" will facilitate location of specific items.

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[9] An annotated bibliography of part of the items on the list is, however, available in mimeographed form from the bulletin editor on request.

[10] Groves, Frank and Richard Vilstrup, (January, 1969), *Cooperative Communications, Member Relations, Motivation and Behavioral Studies: Selected Annotated Bibliography with References from Related Fields*, Cooperative Extension Programs, University Extension, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wisconsin.

Part I. Research Needs

Some Needs in Farm Organization Research

W. KEITH WARNER
University of Wisconsin

Farm organizations constitute complex and important subject matter for sociological study. Some of them are concerned with a general range of farmers' interests, whereas others specialize in the concerns surrounding particular agricultural commodities, or kinds of services. Some emphasize federal legislative programs on behalf of farmers and some emphasize private collective bargaining programs. General organizations and cooperative associations are interrelated in complex ways. Research on these organizations involves a wide array of concepts and propositions relating to voluntary associations, bureaucracy, the sociology of law, and social movements, as well as to other fields such as economics and political science.

The purpose of the following discussion is to outline some of the problems, needs and opportunities in developing a sociological understanding of farm organizations. The object is not to develop a research proposal but to sketch questions and issues that, with further elaboration, seem worth research effort. My focus will be primarily on general farm organizations, although much of the discussion might apply to other kinds of agricultural organizations. The listing is not intended to be comprehensive, only indicative of needs.

THE NATURE OF FARM ORGANIZATIONS

Farm organizations are essentially voluntary associations. (As they move further toward collective bargaining aims, voluntariness, however, will likely decrease.) As in other voluntary associations, membership participation in farm organizations is intermittent. The frequency of interaction in organizational roles is low and most leaders (especially at local levels) are volunteers. The intensity of behavioral involvement in organizational activities is low, compared with work organizations. Normative modes of compliance (compared with utilitarian and coercive modes) predominate.[1] Problems of continuing practical interests to the farm organizations are similar to those of other voluntary associations: membership recruitment and loyalty, leadership development, membership involvement in organizational affairs, etc. An additional, perhaps complicating, factor is the geographic dispersion of the membership.

The major purposes of the general farm organizations emphasize economic matters. Program approaches include legislative, educational, and fraternal, as well as cooperative services and collective marketing and bargaining concerns.

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[1] Etzioni, Amitai, (1961), *A Comparative Analysis of Complex Organizations: On Power, Involvement, and Their Correlates*, The Free Press of Glencoe, New York: Part One.

Several issues are involved in the development of viable farm organizations. One is developing common purposes and bonds to the organization. Although we hear about "the farmer" and "the farm problem" as though all farmers were alike and shared a common problem to be solved by either private organization or governmental programs, this view obscures as much as it illuminates. The notion of common interests hides the fact, for instance, that farmers with different commodities compete with each other as much as with nonfarmers. It also obscures fundamental ideological differences like the role of government in agriculture and the appropriateness or necessity of collective bargaining. The notion of common economic problems avoids the fact that some farmers are involved in large-scale, profitable, commercial agriculture, and some are engaged in operations that are commercially marginal. Programs needed by one group may provide little or no help for others.

Another issue is the extent to which farm organizations are associations of farmers or of farm enterprises. If they are associations of farmers who retain completely autonomous control over their enterprise, how can power be generated in the marketplace? Emphasis on political power and legislative programs has been compatible with this approach, because the issue is then votes rather than coordination of production and marketing. But what are the consequences of seeking greater economic power? Two possibilities are more emphasis on organizing the farm enterprises (e.g., devising alternative forms of collective bargaining approaches) and new concerns about issues of interdependence and autonomy.

If greater coordination and control are introduced regarding the farm enterprise, further organizational problems await. The perishability of the product restricts organizational maneuverability in the competitive process. Interchangeability of the production and consumption of various agricultural commodities requires multi-commodity organization which brings problems of intercommodity competition in members' interests. Issues involved in reconciling the diverse labor, management, and investment interests in the operation of a farm enterprise must be confronted.

The existing general farm organizations have primarily developed out of the farmers' movement and have been major rivals in ideological competition. They have been or are social movement organizations and experience the processes of institutionalization and bureaucratization that accompany the survival and longevity of such organizations.[2]

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[2] Social movements and their relations to organizations are discussed in the next essay in this bulletin: Denton E. Morrison and James R. Hundley, "Needed Research on Farmers' Movements." For a general discussion of social movement organizations, see Zald, Mayer N. and Roberta Ash, (March, 1966), "Social Movement Organizations: Growth, Decay and Change," *Social Forces,* 44:327-341.

THE SOCIETAL CONTEXT

An adequate understanding of farm organizations must include an understanding of the salient aspects of their societal context.[3] The following selected aspects have a potentially important influence on the farm organizations. Changes in most of them are familiar to students of rural society. The questions are: how do these aspects of the societal context affect the nature and development of farm organizations and how do the organizations respond to such changes?

Political Organization

The reapportionment of state and federal political power is an important reality. What is its consequence for farm organizations: a reduction of success of the organizations' legislative program or an inducement to form coalitions or to merge to compensate for loss of power? Is it an attempt to enhance economic power and use it to enhance political power?

"Urban Fundamentalism"

The agrarian origins of American society have often provided a traditional baseline for evaluating proposals for change. The shift of power to urban-industrial areas apparently resulted in the rise of provincial "urban fundamentalism" equivalent to "rural fundamentalism,"[4] long espoused by farm organizations and others. How will organizations respond to these ideological changes: by holding on to old fundamentalistic values of agrarian life, by devising new ideologies compatible with the realities of the shift in power, or by emphasizing nonideological (i.e., utilitarian or coercive) aspects of their efforts on behalf of farmers and ignore the changes in ideological orientations in society?

Farm Organizational Clientele

Associated with the foregoing aspects of society and their changes is the decline in the number of farm operators in the United States. What are the direct consequences for the farm organizations? A major concern of current farm organizations is to help as many farmers as possible to remain on the farm. Long-run organizational success may be increased by short-run failure in this regard. Paradoxically, there is reason to expect that the smaller the number of farmers, the better the prospects for organizing larger portions of them into more viable organizations.[5]

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[3] Blau, Peter M. and W. Richard Scott, (1962), *Formal Organizations: A Comparative Approach*, Chandler Publishing Co., San Francisco: 11-14, and Chapter 8.

[4] Bonnen, James T., (1965), "National Policy for Agriculture and for Rural Life: Trends, Problems, and Prospects," in 427:106-107.

[5] Olson, Mancur, Jr., (1965), *The Logic of Collective Action: Public Goods and the Theory of Groups*, Harvard University Press, Cambridge, Massachusetts.

The Agricultural Enterprise

Increasing capital requirements in farming and increasing scale of operation are familiar changes in the agricultural enterprise. Possible consequences include greater selectivity and homogeneity of members in farm organizations. They also include the potential of farm operators' obtaining some benefits directly through their own scale of enterprise rather than through the collective efforts of the farm organizations. Larger farm enterprises may necessitate organizational forms closer to those needed by large farm organizations. An increased transferability between organizational aspects of the farming enterprise and the farmer organizations may result. Will these possible consequences become a reality? Under what conditions? In what other ways do the nature of, and changes in, the farming operation influence the organization of farmers?

Agricultural Organization

The farm enterprise is changing not only in scale, but also in organizational form. Corporation farming, vertical integration, and contract farming, for example, appear to be increasing in relation to the "family farm" (107). Will these changes constitute alternatives to the traditional nature of general farm organizations? Will the changes elicit new functions for the organizations or new organizations (e.g., more like labor unions) to serve farmers who manage the farms or produce and market by contract? Will the changes bring new problems or advantages in recruiting and organizing farmers?

Ecological Patterns

The production of agricultural commodities is differentially distributed around the country, some areas dominated by one particular commodity. Similarly, the concentration and dominance of urbanism and industrialization and the distribution of the farm organizations form ecological patterns. How does geographical dispersion or concentration affect the development and performance of farm organizations, interorganizational cooperation and conflict, etc.? Does industrial dominance in a state provide more immediate problems for general farm organizations than does substantial competition among dominant agricultural commodities? How do regional limitations on the production of certain commodities enhance organization (e.g., by diminishing the number of producers and concentrating them geographically) or hinder it (e.g., by restricting the national base of power)? What are the effects on one farm organization when another one is dominant in an area?

Community Organizations

Farm organizations, as voluntary associations, rely on obtaining participation from members in their "leisure time." There are, of course, many competing demands for such participation, and the specialization of associations has led to increased numbers of groups and multiple memberships of individuals. At the same time, there is increasing recognition that, because the solution of many important problems is beyond the scope of interest and resources of any given organization, some larger grouping of organizations is essential. How do farm organizations both compete successfully for members and resources and cooperate with other organizations toward solving larger problems? How can farm organizations with more general interests compete with community organizations specializing in some of those same interests?

Other Factors

Many other aspects of the societal environment may have an important influence on the nature and operation of farm organizations. The cultural environment is of particular interest when social movement organizations attempt to make substantial changes in traditional ways of doing things as did the National Farmers Organization (NFO). How is public opinion mobilized for or against such organizations on the basis of existing societal norms and values? How are members recruited from an environment in which important norms and values challenge the organization?

Community structure is another potential influence of importance. For example, how does the community stratification structure affect public support for farm organizations, for the legislative programs they seek on behalf of farmers, or for their efforts and methods in collective bargaining?

One general way of systematically delineating important segments of the environmental context of farm organizations is to identify their "task environment":[6] who supplies the resources or competes for those resources? Who receives the benefit or competes for the "market" and loyalty of the beneficiaries? Who exercises any regulatory influence on the conduct of the organization? How are the attributes of this environment changing?

EXAMPLES OF RESEARCH PROBLEM AREAS

Following are several problem areas that represent needed research in the context of all the foregoing questions. These areas are as fundamental to understanding farm organizations as they are to understanding other kinds of groups. Study of them could provide a useful basis for testing propositions and otherwise enriching the accumulating literature on the sociology of organizations.

Organizational Effectiveness

One of the most crucial problems is the conceptualization of what organizational effectiveness is, what elements are involved in it, and how it is to be measured.[7] Without considerably more theory and evidence about effectiveness, studies of farm organizations will largely be sterile.

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[6] See Thompson, James D., (1967), *Organizations in Action: Social Science Bases of Administrative Theory*, McGraw-Hill Book Co., New York: 27-29.

The first steps require delineation and operationalization of organizational goals and products. Subsequent, useful research will not be one-time evaluations of the various farm organizations. It will emphasize organizational effectiveness as a central dependent variable in the testing of various theories about organizational structure and operation.[8] This requires measures of effectiveness that can be repeated with some frequency and compared across organizational units.

A basic issue is whether to measure effectiveness by the degree of goal attainment or by the "products" or benefits made available to people. These are not the same. Organizations can, and do, provide benefits that are not closely related to their major objectives. Another important issue is beneficiaries: Are they members or nonmembers? Especially in legislative programs, benefits are likely to be diffused among farmers (or others) in society and not specific to members of farm organizations. How effective are farm organizations and compared to what other groups? How does relative effectiveness change with the age of the organization or with competition from other farm organizations? For whom are the organizations effective?

Organization-Individual Exchange

Belonging to a voluntary organization costs members time or energy or money. For such costs some tangible or intangible benefits are presumed to be available. A fundamental problem for organizations is how to achieve and demonstrate a favorable cost–benefit ratio. In research, calculation of such ratios might be attempted from either the organizational or members' point of view. To what extent do members make even an approximate calculation of this sort? To what extent is nonmembership or dropping-out a result of arriving at an unfavorable ratio? How does faith in the future of the organization intervene in the interpretation of past benefits? What modes of influence are used by the organization to induce support and resources in lieu of any cost–benefit ratios or in spite of unfavorable ones? What means are used by organizations to help members interpret their costs and benefits.[9]

What is the degree of contingency attached to the organizational benefits? Under what conditions do normal costs exceed some upper limit the member is unwilling to surpass? What alternatives to the organization does the member have? How does the remoteness or the intangibility of the goals affect the exchange? How do these ideas apply to organizations with a service or philanthropic interest? What are the unique cost–benefit problems in farm organizations?

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[7] Part of this problem for voluntary associations is discussed in Warner, W. Keith, (Fall, 1967), "Problems in Measuring the Goal Attainment of Voluntary Organizations," *Adult Education*, 19:3-14.

[8] For example, this might be done by adapting Hage's axiomatic theory: see Hage, Jerald, (December, 1965), "An Axiomatic Theory of Organizations," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 10:289-320.

[9] See: Copp, James H., (June, 1964), "Perceptual Influences on Loyalty in a Farmer Cooperative," *Rural Sociology*, 29:168-180; also 940.

When neither the member nor the organization calculate costs and benefits what are the chief factors in membership recruitment and loyalty, obtaining necessary resources for organizational operation, and determining policies and programs? How much and what kind of social pressure, ideological commitment, casual impulse, etc., play influential parts in determining the course of events in farm organizations?

Organizational Measurement

In order to calculate cost–benefit ratios, as well as to test other assertions and presumed principles of organization, measurement of the variables is obviously essential. What is not so obvious is that our conceptualization and measurement are relatively less well developed for the central organizational variables (e.g., effectiveness or productivity) and better developed for less theoretically potent aspects (e.g., characteristics of participants). Furthermore, the internal measurement and feedback mechanisms in most voluntary organizations are grossly inadequate for rational administrative decision making and for rigorous testing of principles of organizational operation.[10] How extensive and adequate are they in farm organizations? What would be the effects of improvement in the routine measurements available to the organization leaders and members?

Certainly, one of the most fundamental and urgent areas of research is in the development of devices for measuring the input, output, and consequences of policies and procedures. The more abstract and intangible the major inputs and outputs, the more urgent is the need to develop adequate measurement. In addition to the well-known needs for validity and reliability, there is substantial need for developing economically feasible methods that are quick and simple.

Alternative Organizational Forms

An important issue is special commodity versus general organization. Which form yields the most effective performance for the marketing problems of agriculture or other farm organization interests at the least social and economic costs? What organizational devices are used in general farm organizations to minimize the undesired effects of intra-agricultural competition? What coalitions emerge among commodity organizations? To what extent is the degree of specialization by a farmer related to his membership in a general or a commodity organization or both?

A second issue is unitary versus federated organizations.[11] Which kind provides greater control by the membership: the monolithic, unitary structure or the pluralistic, federated structure? Which kind is more effective for a voluntary association in attaining its professed goals? Is there any relationship between special commodity and general organizations and between unitary and federated structure?

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[10] Warner, W. Keith, (Spring, 1967), "Feedback in Administration," *Journal of Cooperative Extension*, 5:35-46.

[11] Simon, Herbert A., Donald W. Smithburg, and Victor A. Thompson, (1950), *Public Administration*, Alfred A. Knopf, New York: 268-272.

More generally, how are alternative designs of structure related to the activities of the organization?[12] The logic of organizational design suggests a sequence. Organizational purpose rationally should determine the activities necessary and sufficient to accomplish the purpose. The activities should determine the structure necessary and sufficient to coordinate and facilitate the activities. Is it true that the closer this sequence is followed, the more productive the organizations are? What organizational problems result when the sequence is not followed? What special problems regarding organizational forms arise from growth, diversification of programs, or mergers?

Membership and Personnel Roles

For general farm organizations, what role activities of personnel (members, leaders, employees) would add up to the performance necessary for attainment of goals or production of desired benefits? What kinds of knowledge, attitudes, and skills are necessary to perform those roles? What socialization programs (member education, personnel training, etc.) would provide the required knowledge, attitudes, and skills? How do these programs compare with current socialization programs? What inducement patterns best elicit the desired performance?[13] The same kinds of variables could be used to describe existing patterns or to determine necessary and sufficient conditions for goal attainment.

Organizational Change

The improvement of organizational performance usually requires some changes of structure, activities, or both. Frequently, such changes are blocked by personnel in the organization. Seldom are adequate mechanisms built into voluntary associations for "self renewal."[14] Consequently, institutionalization and bureaucratization prevent the accomplishment they are presumed to insure.

Further work is needed to study how organizations can and do accommodate the conflict arising from the desires of some personnel for structure and program changes while others block changes.[15] What do organizations do with personnel who block improvements, new programs, the abandonment of old programs, etc.? How do organizations adjust their policies and programs over time and from crisis to crisis: by rational planning or other means? How can they establish regular and effective procedures for change and improvement?

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[12] See: Perrow, Charles, (April, 1967), "A Framework for the Comparative Analysis of Organizations," *American Sociological Review*, 32:194-208; and Thompson, *op. cit.*, Part One.

[13] Warner, W. Keith and A. Eugene Havens, (March, 1968), "Goal Displacement and the Intangibility of Organizational Goals," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 12:539-555.

[14] Gardner, John W., (1965), *Self-Renewal: The Individual and the Innovative Society*, Harper and Row, Inc., New York.

[15] Blau and Scott, *op. cit.*, 43-58.

Leadership and Membership Control

The tendency toward oligarchy in organizations has received considerable attention. Membership control remains a crucial problem in mutual benefit associations[16] at local, state, and national levels. Increased complexity of the farming enterprise requires a variety of skills and managerial decisions and constitutes a full-time business. How can the farmer have either the time or the range of skills to make him both an organizational and an agricultural specialist?

When full-time personnel are hired, how are their interests reconciled with those of part-time participants who make up the rank-and-file membership? How does this reconciliation affect membership loyalty, organizational effectiveness, etc.? What alternative structural forms and procedures help or hinder local membership control in relation to state and national levels—or vice versa? How do differences in organizational objectives (e.g., legislative programs versus collective bargaining in the marketplace) influence the centralization of authority?

Other important questions focus on the leadership. How important are personal attributes and values of leaders in determining organizational policies? In general farm organizations, are leaders given more or less freedom and responsibility to "run the organization" than in other kinds of organizations? What are the criteria by which leaders are selected and accepted by the membership? What have these criteria to do with observable organizational success? What are the processes of leadership succession? How are they related to problems faced by the organization in its growth and development?

Voluntary Associations in the Marketplace

To what extent can member–controlled voluntary associations of farmers compete successfully in the marketplace with business firms? What legislation would help or hinder such a situation? Voluntary associations have little ability to secure the compliance of members and control their actions. To what extent is some kind of membership contract a solution to membership compliance? What does this situation do to the voluntary nature of the organization? To what extent is it necessary to hire full-time, well-trained specialists to insure organizational success in the marketplace? How are relationships worked out among hired specialists, volunteer leaders, and general memberships?

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[16] Perrow, *op. cit.;* Thompson, *op. cit.*

Interorganizational Analysis

Most of the accumulated literature on the sociology of organizations is best understood as *intra*organizational analyses. Some studies deal with structural parts or programs of organizations. Others focus on the behavior of persons in the context of organizations. Inte*r*organizational analysis and comparative studies of organizations are increasingly important. To what extent can general propositions and frameworks in organizational analysis be applied to voluntary associations.[17] To what extent can those applicable be employed to study farm organizations?

What are the relationships among general farm organizations, special commodity associations, cooperatives, government agencies relating to agriculture, processing firms dealing with agricultural products, etc.? What are the processes of competition and conflict and the conditions governing them? What is the relative salience of ideological positions, organizational survival, leader personality, and farmers' common problems as bases for rivalry or cooperation among farm organizations?

Extensive government involvement in various aspects of agriculture provides the basis for studying relationships between public and private organizational approaches. What are the public-private coalitions? Are government agricultural agencies co-opted by private farm organizations or vice versa (817)? How is the declining number of farm operators affecting the relationship between private organizations and public agricultural agencies? Are the organizations losing influence with agencies or are both joining to advance the interests of agriculture (or their own organization's survival interests) in relation to nonagricultural interests? How does competition among government agencies for funds affect their relationships to farm organizations? How does competition among farm organizations affect their ability to obtain favorable responses from agricultural agencies or the Congress?

GENERAL RESEARCH NEEDS

Most of the foregoing questions are familiar. Asking them does not imply that we know nothing about the answers. Something is known but lack of synthesis and codification obscures the extent of our knowledge. Providing answers without developing explanatory, generalized propositions is relatively useless.

Many general research needs are also very familiar: (1) the chronic need for developing a closer relationship between theory and research, (2) the utilization of available literature from research on other relevant subject matter, (3) larger and more broadly-based samples, (4) multivariate analysis, and (5) codification of results. These needs are as applicable to the study of farm organizations as to all sociological research. The same is true of needs less often discussed, such as the following.

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[17] Consider: Mayntz, Renate, (1964), "The Study of Organizations: A Trend Report and Bibliography," *Current Sociology*, 13, No. 3:110; also Thompson, *op. cit.*, viii.

Criteria Regarding Theoretical Quality

We need to establish criteria for judging quality of theoretical work. When are the theoretical foundations of a research project properly developed so results make a long-run contribution to generalized explanation? What constitutes theoretical adequacy for design, analysis, and interpretation of a research project and report?

More Intensive and Representative Data

We need more intensive and representative data on the phenomena studied. Questionnaire or interview responses are inadequate. They are relatively superficial and cover a wide range of topics. The questions often make unreasonable demands to recall or express clear, rational, and consistent feelings or facts about topics to which the respondent has given little careful consideration. Adequate data may also require repeated interviews or observations.

It is difficult to obtain data for the organization as the unit of analysis rather than for individuals. Who can speak for the organization? What data portray the organization rather than the views or actions of some of its personnel? Designs need to be developed for extensive sampling of observations to obtain a single fact or set of facts or to represent a single unit of analysis (the organization or some unit of it).

Need for Holistic Research

Research designs need to account for as many relevant major variables in an organization as possible. Few important problems will have single variable solutions. If organizational variables are interdependent, as social systems theory suggests, then all major variables presumably are relevant to major problems. Research on organizations must become increasingly holistic, taking all the parts together and analyzing the organization in its social environment.

Different Methods of Testing Propositions

Consistent with the need for more holistic and multivariate studies is the importance of supplementing survey methods with other forms of study. Two of these methods are simulation and experimentation.

Simulation provides a way of doing pseudo-experiments (i.e., partial experiments in laboratory situations) while avoiding some of the costs of actions and errors in real organizations. Simulation can be developed either for implementation by computers or as training and research "games" involving people in simulated organizational action.

Experimentation in real organizations is difficult not only to do, but to legitimize. Whether done by research-and-development consultation or small pilot projects, it provides the "acid test" for organizational propositions.

Normative and Descriptive Research

We need to distinguish between descriptive and normative or prescriptive research.[18] Many important questions regarding farm organizations require prescriptive answers on how to accomplish something new or to bring about some change, rather than descriptive facts or generalizations about past or present happenings. Prescriptions must be based on empirical evidence from methodologically careful and theoretically powerful research.

Future Orientation

We are too accustomed to studying patterns and processes as they existed in the past. By the time our research results are reported, even about the present, situations and problems often are changed. We need more future orientation in the design of our research. We need to ask not only what conditions influence farm organizations now, but what will be the conditions ten or twenty years from now. The societal context of farm organizations is changing. We need not only to document those changes, but to project them, anticipate them, and then attempt to anticipate the consequences and alternative modes of adaptation to, or control of, the changes.

We need to develop our skills in forecasting organizational changes and consequences of organizational programs. For example, how much will urban and industrial competition with agriculture for water intensify in the future? What problems will this pose for organizations of farmers? What would be the consequences if Farm Bureau, Farmers' Union, Grange, or National Farmers' Organization were to obtain their complete program for farmers?

CONCLUSIONS

Perhaps the greatest research need is for good examples. Sociological studies of farm organizations based upon quality research with important questions answered would serve to stimulate further research and to build a body of sound knowledge.

Some present sources and systems of research support do not adequately recognize the importance of or criteria for quality sociological research. Support for research, like the researchers themselves, seems somewhat prone to follow fads. Important needs and opportunities to study farm organizations await adequate money, trained manpower, and desire by persons related to agricultural organizations and agencies.

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[18] Warner, W. Keith, (August, 1967), "Normative and Descriptive Theory in the Study of Organizations," a paper presented at the annual meetings of the Rural Sociological Society, San Francisco, California.

Needed Research on Farmers' Movements

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In social science literature, social movements are generally characterized as emerging collective efforts to bring about or block changes that are in some sense unconventional or extraordinary in character, degree, methods employed, or in all these ways. Similarly, those persons who participate in the movement are characterized by the urgency with which they desire the changes.[1]

A useful, though not completely clear, distinction can be made between power– or control–oriented movements and participation oriented movements.[2] In participation–oriented movements personal transformation or the conversion of persons to beliefs or behavior patterns is the main method used to bring about change. Examples are the hippie movement, the moral rearmament movement, and the pentecostal movement. In power–oriented movements changes are achieved by carefully disciplining and coordinating followers to employ whatever methods or tactics are necessary to allow the movement to exercise group influence to achieve its ends. Power–oriented movements generally are distinctive in the extent to which there are deliberate and systematic efforts to *organize* individuals to act in concert. In power–oriented movements, group actions are not in and of themselves viewed as a source of benefits or gratifications to individual participants. Such actions are thought necessary to force the larger social context to respond in some way desired by the members of the group. Most manifestations of the labor movement, the civil rights movement, and the farmers' movement are examples of power–oriented movements. Movements of this type will be the special theoretical focus of this essay.

Power–oriented movements do not typically consist of a single organized effort. More often such movements are characterized by an expanding cluster of loosely related efforts, like the current collective bargaining movement in agriculture. Growth, momentum, and diffusion of interest in change appear to be as important as interest in unconventional change *per se* in calling forth the label "movement" for certain more or less specific collective efforts to induce change. Repeated occurrence of specific movements among some category of persons over considerable time often leads to the use of the term "movement" in a more general sense (i.e., when broad reference is made to the "farmers' movement"). Some of these specific efforts may persist and develop into more or less conventional organizations, like the Grange. Others, such as the Farmers' Holiday Association, come and go in short order. Still other new efforts such as the NFO emerge on the contemporary scene and make their bid for success and longevity.

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[1] The specific designation of collective behavior, including social movements, as "extraordinary" is found in Brown, Roger, *Social Psychology*, (1965), The Free Press, New York: 709ff. The notion is, however, implied in most of the standard textbook or popular treatments, for instance: Blumer, Herbert, (1946), "Social Movements," *Principles of Sociology*, Barnes and Noble, New York: 199-220; William Bruce Cameron, (1965), *Modern Social Movements*, Wiley Science Editions, New York; Heberle, Rudolfe, *Social Movements*, (1951), Appleton, Century, Crofts, New York; Hoffer, Eric, (1951), *The True Believer*, Harper and Row Publishers, New York; Killian, Lewis, (1964), "Social Movements," in R. E. L. Faris (ed.), *Handbook of Modern Sociology*, Rand McNally, Chicago: 426-455; King, Wendell, (1956), *Social Movements in the United States*, Random House, New York; Lang, Kurt and Gladys Lang, (1961), *Collective Dynamics*, Thomas Y. Crowell Co., New York: 489-542; Smelser, Neil, (1963), *Theory of Collective Behavior*, The Free Press, New York: 270-381; Toch, Hans, (1965), *The Social Psychology of Social Movements*, The Bobbs-Merrill Co., Indianapolis, Indiana; Turner, Ralph and Lewis Killian, (1957), *Collective Behavior*, Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: 307-511.

[2] Killian, *op. cit.*, 448-452.

The above may suggest that we can attempt to treat organizations and movements in a common conceptual framework simply by looking upon movements as organizations that are relatively new, somewhat diffuse, emerging, unstable, and, above all, oriented toward achieving changes that are unconventional and urgently desired by the participants. In fact, one could argue that there is no fruitful basis for special theories, concepts, or approaches for the study of social movements. Although one of the most important needs in this area is for a greater theoretical integration of research on movements with that on organizations, we will not undertake this difficult task. The ability of organizational theory to inform research on movements and *vice versa* will be apparent at many points but we will also indicate why the two areas have emerged as semi-distinct foci.

The essay consists of three main parts. In the first part, social movements *per se* are the main units of our interest and analysis. Needed research regarding conditions related to emergence of movments, stages of development, and consequences for social change are discussed. These aspects are more purely "sociological," in contrast with the social psycholoical emphasis of the second part dealing with attracting, recruiting, organizing, and maintaining adherents in social movements. In the third part we discuss methodological needs in the study of movements.

NEEDED SOCIOLOGICAL RESEARCH ON FARMERS' MOVEMENTS

Attempts at change–oriented organized action in rural society are not limited to farmers. Movements can and do occur among migrant farm workers and others in the hired agricultural labor force. They also occur among absentee agricultural landowners and among businessmen in agricultural communities. "Agrarian" movements would be a broader, more appropriate designation for the general theoretical concern of this and the following section. "Agrarian" is a better term for what *should* be the research concern of sociologists: a view broader than one encompassing only farmers' movements. The research needs sketched here are important mainly for testing and building general theory about movements and are applicable to farmers' and other movements. Many of the needs outlined stem from the authors' research and observations on one of the most manifestly organized aspects of the contemporary farmers' collective bargaining movement, the National Farmers' Organization (NFO) (326; 452; 453; 454; 538; 627; 628; 629; 630; 631; 632). The current U. S. scene also offers a unique opportunity to study the Mexican-American farm workers' movement. The United Farm Workers is the movement's most visible and successful organized aspect.

The Emergence and Development of Movements

The NFO points up the necessarily close relationship between the study of movements and organizations. Although carrying the name "organization" from the start, the NFO could not have been studied fruitfully ten years ago by means of the same questions that would have been most appropriate for studying the Farm Bureau, Farmers' Union, and Grange. The latter organizations were relatively stable, well respected, fully legitimized, and well bureaucratized. Their problems include keeping and improving relatively sophisticated states of organization, not bringing a viable organization into existence. A dramatic improvement in farmers' income situation in the last few years might have dissolved the NFO but made the other organizations stronger. Still, some of the "established" general farm organizations started as movements, much in the way the NFO started. There is every indication that the NFO has developed somewhat toward the stability, bureaucratization, and so on, which characterize the established organizations. But it is also fruitful to continue studying the NFO within the theoretical framework of movements.

These observations seem to support a popular theoretical position in the literature that social movements or at least specific movement–organizations pass through a life-cycle of stages. These theories vary in particulars but generally posit the following: (1) a condition of structural strain; (2) precipitating, crystallizing events or crises; (3) incipient organized efforts around a change–oriented ideology or belief; (4) growth; (5) formal organization; and (6) decline, death, or institutionalization.[3]

Although this scheme generally seems to describe many "successful" or persistent social movements, it needs further development and testing. What are the economic, social, and political conditions that constitute the structural "strains" that generate farmers' movements? What crises and precipitating events are necessary to trigger a movement? Do such crises occur more often in certain types or scales of farming or where certain tenure or ethnic or ecological patterns prevail? What are the common elements in the ideologies, programs, and strategies of farmers' movements? Are there commonalities in the types of groups or social forces that farmers' movements "move against," i.e., villains and scapegoats such as bankers, urbanites, or middlemen? How do the existing organizational and agency structures interact with and react to the incipient movement to influence its effectiveness and development? Why do many movements never get beyond the incipient stage? Why do others achieve growth, formal organization, and institutionalization? Under what conditions do counter–or competing movements arise? What are the changes in ideology, leadership strategy, and goals that facilitate or hinder the legitimation process? What are the factors that contribute to a movement's decline and death?

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[3] See, for example: Turner and Killian, *op. cit.*, 308-321; Smelser, *op. cit.*, 270-312; Wendell King, *op. cit.*, 39-56; Herbert Blumer, *op. cit.*, 203-214; and Zald, Mayer N. and Roberta Ash, (March, 1966), "Social Movement Organizations: Growth, Decay and Change," *Social Forces*, 44, 3:327-341.

Farmers' movements seem to provide an excellent opportunity to test and refine the life-cycle scheme. Obviously, however, the study of movement life-cycles requires more than the typical sociological survey approach. As the list of references in this bulletin attests, the literature is rich with case-history descriptions of farmers' movements or associated organizational efforts. These reports and their sources can be approached in a systematic way to provide a rigorous study of the life-cycle notion. Such approaches may prove fruitful, but the movements primarily studied persisted beyond the incipient stage. Thus, the opportunities for incorrect inferences in studying the life-cycle scheme are great. Although it is often possible on a case-study basis to identify the structural strains and precipitating factors that give rise to movements, it is also necessary to demonstrate that movements have a lower probability of occurrence where the strains are absent.

Similar to the life-cycle theory of movements is Taylor's idea of a general farmers' movement with specific movements historically unfolding within this general phenomenon (892: 490-500). Later movements are thought to incorporate certain elements of ideology and structure of earlier movements, since each specific movement leaves an historic residue of ideas. Historical literature could be useful in testing this notion.

The Consequences of Movements

Even movements of relatively short duration have a direct or indirect impact on the social environment. This environment, in turn, has its impact on the movement. What is the nature of the existing farm organization structure that precedes the emergence of new movements? What kinds of ideologies, strategies, and programs do the established organizations promote? Are the existing organizations meeting the demands imposed upon farmers by the changes affecting agriculture? Under what conditions and to what extent do the methods, programs, and ideology of the movement affect those of the established organizations? For example, what is the nature of the relationship between the collective bargaining notions of the NFO and similar programs of the Farm Bureau and other bargaining associations? Under what conditions are farmers' movements able to form alliances with existing organizations to increase the movements' legitimacy, prestige, power, and membership or simply to reduce threats and survive?

To what extent do movements of agrarians get support and advice from other kinds of movements such as the labor movement and the civil rights movement?

Not only the existing farm organizations, but other organizations, institutions, and agencies in the rural community must respond to the emergence of a movement. Militant, collective bargaining movements like the NFO evoke responses from local businessmen, processors and retailers, churches, law enforcement officials, the press, politicians, and educators, including Cooperative Extension personnel. Are certain responses typical of the various categories when a movement arises?

The above are likely to have well-worked-out relationships with existing farm organizations and power structures in agriculture. How are these relationships adjusted when a new organization makes a bid for community legitimacy, power and support? What are the stages in accommodation of the local rural community to a movement? To what extent do movements disrupt or consolidate family and neighborhood cohesion, integration, and leadership? To what extent are the controversies involved in the growth of a movement structured along lines of class, status, and political power? To what extent do personnel of existing organizations and agencies provide leadership and ideology for the movement? Do existing organizations help cause movements by failing to give leadership opportunities and thereby frustrate potential leaders in rural communities?

How do farmers' movements relate to public programs in agriculture? Do public agricultural bureaucracies react as if threatened by private movements that press for alternatives to public organization in and control over agriculture? Under what conditions do "direct action" farmers' movements (such as collective bargaining movements) arise in contrast with movements that attempt to operate by influencing the farmers' situation by legislative–political means? How are varying types of government farm policies related to the rates and types of farmers' movement emergence?

Some of these questions involve obtaining data from individuals. Mainly they deal with analysis of movements as special aspects of social structure having structural causes, developmental processes, and consequences. The following section deals mainly with research questions concerning the individual in relation to the movement: the causes and consequences of his participation, the ways individuals interact and assume roles in movements, and related questions. Questions of both these general types must be studied and integrated in research designs if knowledge about movements is to approach completeness.

NEEDED RESEARCH ON THE SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY OF MOVEMENTS

The Causes and Consequences of Movement Participation

Economic goals of higher income and prices for farm products are often central in farmers' movements. While dissatisfaction of a movement's participators over their economic situation is great, there is evidence that at least earlier joiners and participants in movements, including farmers' movements, are not among the most deprived economically.[4] There is also some evidence that the social psychological phenomenon of "relative deprivation" may help explain this paradox.

Participators are dissatisfied not because they have less, but because they have come to want more (have higher aspirations) through their more affluent "reference groups." Moreover, participators perceive structural blockage in their attempts to reach their aspirations as individuals. They do not regard their difficulties as caused by individual shortages of talent, education, motivation, or resources, but, rather, by institutionalized features of the social system that keep them from reaching their goals (631:422-433). These notions need further study before they can be considered firmly established.

What are the processes by and the conditions under which higher income aspirations are formed and frustrated? What ecological and interactional "density" of blocked aspirations must occur to generate a movement? What is the role of urban contacts and off-farm work experiences in formation of such aspirations? In developing countries, do the rural–urban contacts that necessarily increase in the course of agricultural and economic development create a high level of relative deprivation in rural areas? How does the shape of class structure (pyramidal, diamond-shaped, or bottom-heavy hourglass) affect income aspirations and income mobility?

What is the role of "class consciousness" in movement formation and participation? What are the conditions, if any, under which the economically deprived in rural and other areas lose apathy and organize on their own behalf?[5] How is "economic insecurity" related to movement formation and participation?[6] Is insecurity about subsistence or insecurity about economic *goals* more closely related to movement formation and participation? Lipset's hypothesis that insecurity involved in reliance on a single crop is an important factor in generating agrarian movements is plausible but inadequately tested (546: espec. Chap. 1 and 2). It is also a form of relative deprivation when individuals suffer economic setbacks and take their former, better income positions as points of comparison. Are the types of movements and participators related to this phenomenon ("decremental deprivation") different from the situation in which structural blockages in reaching economic aspirations ("aspirational deprivation") are involved?[7]

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[4] For evidence on a farmers' movement see 631:416-422. Broader evidence for other movements is in Pinard, Maurice, (Fall, 1967), "Poverty and Social Movements," *Social Problems*, 15, 2:250-263.

[5] For an elaboration of some notions on this point, see: Morrison, Denton E., (December, 1966), "Relative Deprivation and Rural Discontent in Developing Countries: A Theoretical Proposal," paper presented at the annual meetings of the American Association for the Advancement of Science, Washington, D. C., (mimeographed).

[6] See: Zeitlin, Maurice, (February, 1966), "Economic Insecurity and the Political Attitudes of Cuban Workers," *American Sociological Review*, 31, 1:35-51.

Most of the above questions deal with the nature and extent of "deprivations" related to movement participation. There are alternatives to understanding movement participation in terms of deprivation (economic or other kinds). One might study movement participation within the framework of theory and findings connected with research on diffusion of innovations. Does the goal "adoption" process of a movement follow the sequence of awareness, interest, trial, evaluation, and so on? Do early and late joiners of farmers' movements differ from each other in personal, demographic, and farm characteristics in the same way early and late adopters do?[8] There are good reasons why the adoption model, tested mainly on technological innovations, should *not* hold for organizational innovations such as a movement. Most technological innovations studied produce demonstrated benefits to the user and are recommended by high status persons in the community. Social movement participation seldom, if ever, has this characteristic. Movement participation involves greater risk-taking in several ways. There are interesting possibilities in considering movement participation from the standpoint of research on diffusion of innovations.

Cantril and Hoffer's early and popular attempts to account for movement participation in terms of basic learned need or personality states (need for meaning, authoritarianism, dogmatism) are not carefully and empirically explored.[9] Are movements interchangeable so far as the participants are concerned, as Hoffer says? To what extent does recruitment to a social movement resemble religious conversion in terms of adherence to a "true belief?" Do movement participators exhibit strong feelings of powerlessness and meaninglessness (at least before recruitment and participation)? To what extent is recruitment to a radical movement and involvement in deviant behavior similar?[10] How is the individual's social participation and integration in the rural community related to movement participation? Do movement participators exhibit high status inconsistency (401, 402)? What is the relevance of cognitive dissonance theory to movement participation, either as a cause or a consequence?

What are the unique attitudinal and behavioral consequences of movement participation? Is organizational (adult) socialization in a movement substantially different from that in an established voluntary or other large-scale organization? What are the commonalities in beliefs of participators in various types of movements? Certainly there is some basis for the notion of common beliefs in structural blockage, persecution, moral legitimation of the movement, distrust of nonparticipants, scapegoats to absorb blame for difficulties, etc.

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[7] Morrison, *op. cit.*, 5 ff.

[8] See 871 and 872 for some evidence that this is so.

[9] See Cantril, *op. cit.;* and Hoffer, *op. cit.*

[10] For some interesting research and theory on this notion see: Lofland, John, and Rodney Stark, (December, 1965), "Becoming a World Saver: A Theory of Conversion to a Deviant Perspective," *American Sociological Review*, 30, 6:862-875.

Are movement participators more homogeneous in beliefs than participators in other voluntary organizations? Are participators more extreme in belief, more dogmatic?[11] Is the language of movement participators more stereotyped than nonparticipators'? What are various types of membership careers in a social movement? Participators defect from movements, too. Why, when, and how?[12] How are selective perceptions of a movement's "success" developed and maintained when the evidence (to nonparticipants) is clearly to the contrary? How do participators react to a movement's gradual demise?[13]

Certainly it is erroneous to treat all nonmembers of a movement alike. What differences exist in attitudes of empathizers, sympathizers, bystanders, and active opponents? To what extent is empathy with the economically deprived a motive operating independently of relative deprivation for the more affluent participators in a movement with economic goals?

Interaction, Organization, and Leadership in Movements

Movements are unstable and emerging forms of organization. Early participators in movements are in a different situation than participants in long-established, voluntary organizations. Movements are a good place to study the emergence and change of norms and values through the interaction of members. The interaction as governed by the emerging norms and values can also be studied.

Are the circle and content of interaction of movement participators narrower (more circumscribed) than in established organizations? To what extent are participators' beliefs developed and reinforced by selective interaction with participators and constant proselytizing in relations with nonparticipants? (The notion of cognitive dissonance is relevant here.) To what extent can interactional and expressive rewards of movement participation substitute for instrumental benefits? Are hostile outbreaks and violence accompanying some movements instrumental or simply the manifestation of aggression stemming from members' frustration? Benefits offered by movements are, by definition, risky and often intangible. How do benefits perceived by movement participators contrast with benefits received by participators in conventional voluntary organizations?

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[11] Evidence that this is the case is reported in 627.

[12] For some theory on this see: Weiss, Robert Frank, (March, 1963), "Defection from Social Movements and Subsequent Recruitment to New Movements," *Sociometry*, 26, 1:1-20.

[13] Some tentative leads on member reactions to failure are found in Festinger, Leon, *et al.*, (1956), *When Prophecy Fails*, University of Minnesota Press, Minneapolis; and Demerath, N. J., III, and Victor Thiessen (May, 1966), "On Spitting Against the Wind: Organizational Precariousness and American Irreligion," *American Journal of Sociology*, 71, 6:674-687.

Leadership of any organization is crucial, but particularly so in a social movement organization. How does the leadership in a social movement arise? How do the careers of leaders differ between movement and other organizations? How do bases of power and influence within a movement differ from other organizations? To what extent is leadership based on technical skill in farming, persuasiveness, charisma, or community position? What is the culture of leadership in movements, in terms of conformity to ideology, dedication, etc.? Do levels of activity required of leaders induce conflict between family and farm roles? How do leaders in movement organizations relate to leaders in other organizations? People often retain other conventional organizational memberships when they join movements. Do overlapping memberships pose value and role conflicts? How do nonparticipating associates react to attitudes and behaviors of movement participants? A movement in a rural community is partially an attempt to organize on nontraditional (nonfamily, nonneighborhood) lines. How are power and other relationships in traditional modes of organization influenced by emergence of a movement?

We typically speak of movements as becoming more bureaucratized over time if they survive. Do early leaders change their leadership styles or do new leaders take over when a movement becomes bureaucratized? Does the changing and broadening nature of membership in a relatively successful movement require more bureaucratic leaders? How do leaders develop and change strategies and programs in a movement? How is communication (mass and other) related to the movement's diffusion and mobilization for action? How are participants recruited into leadership posts? How relevant are urban union and political experiences as training for movement leadership? Do organizations such as churches, unions, and the military serve as leadership training schools for movements? How are effective agrarian movements established in developing countries if youth and leadership potential is systematically drained-off through rural to urban migration?

What basis and degree of member loyalty exist in a movement? How do bases of member cohesiveness and discipline differ between movements and conventional voluntary organizations? How is the movement's legal framework (sanctions available, etc.) related to member loyalty, discipline, and recruiting? How is morale maintained? How are participants in a social movement motivated to perform somewhat deviant and extraordinary acts? What sanctions are applied when members fail to conform to the norms of a movement? What are the rewards and costs of movement participation? Do stronger "we" group feelings emerge in movements than in conventional organizations? How do participators feel about the degree of democracy in their movement and their role in decision making? What limits do farming ecology and occupational characteristics put on the nature, frequency, and success of movements arising in agriculture?

Ideology, Beliefs, Symbolism, and Values

What are the common ideological, value, and symbolic elements in farmers' movements? How universal are concerns with government, prices, credit and interest, land tenure, work hours, marketing institutions, taxes, rents and shares, exploitation by urbanites, agricultural fundamentalism (value of food, the naturalness of farming as an occupation), the family farm, middlemen, retailers, and consumers? How are beliefs about these topics integrated into a coherent system? How are various beliefs tied to a movement's core beliefs about change? How are efforts to broaden or narrow the basis of membership related to changes in ideology? What roles do farmer or nonfarmer intellectuals play in developing the ideology of the movement? How do the concerns of a movement vary during the agricultural development of a nation?

What means for coercion and obtaining power are most and least effective in farmers' movements: political, mass communication appeals, education, violence, or threats? To what extent are abstract symbols, including symbolic enemies, important in gaining broad support for recruiting and motivating participators?

We intend the above array of questions to be stimulating, not bewildering. If they are bewildering this indicates the extent to which rigorous research on farmers' (and other) movements is neglected by social scientists. Knowledge is available, but few questions are satisfactorily answered at the present time. The above questions are a challenge for social scientists to sift, sort, establish priorities, and subsequently assault. They are not a basis for further retreat.

NEEDED METHODS FOR STUDYING MOVEMENTS

Many of the research needs on farmers' movements involve methods, techniques, and strategies applicable to social research in general. Nevertheless, they deserve mention.

There is a wealth of literature on farmers' movements, but it is not codified to indicate what we know and exactly what we need to know from further research.[14] A codification in the context of a set of generic categories and hypotheses constituting a theoretical framework on social movements would be helpful. But it might be fruitful to codify knowledge on farmers' movements into other frameworks. It has already been suggested that efforts to subsume social movements in organization theory might be useful.

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[14] The general analysis of this essay is, of course, not intended as a substitute for precise codification, and the questions are intended only to be heuristic, not as the basis for formulating precise hypotheses.

Farmers' movements (or any movements) might also be analyzed meaningfully from the theoretical perspectives of political sociology, social stratification and mobility, or deviance.

Much existing research on social movements, including farmers' movements, consists of historical case studies that are basically descriptive and nonquantitative. Findings from some of these studies might usefully be reinterpreted employing more generic concepts and hypotheses about movements. These studies are a rich source of insight for students of movements, but, in general, do not provide a basis for definitive tests of hypotheses. In particular, they do not provide the rigor of design, sampling, measurement, and analysis necessary for tests of social psychological hypotheses. Such tests demand carefully controlled measurement and quantitative analysis of individual attitudes and behaviors. Although surveys are not the whole answer to research on social movements, they offer advantages over qualitative case studies where tests of social psychological hypotheses are concerned.

The complete answer to social psychological research on movements is not in quantification, but currently only quantification can give definitive answers to many important questions. The nature of social movements makes rigorous design, sampling, and quantified measurement difficult, but will be the only way to resolve the many plausible and conflicting theories. There is no reason data from case studies cannot be treated quantitatively if the data gathered are comparable. The problem with many case studies of farmers' movements is that they were done for historical and even journalistic rather than scientific purposes.

There is need for longitudinal research on social movements. This refers not so much to the historical approach as to survey and observational approaches that gather data at various points in time, as with panels of participants and leaders. Much social movement theory involves propositions of change processes in the nature and goals of the movement over time, changes in beliefs and interactions of participants and leaders over time, and so on. Only with longitudinal data can hypotheses be tested adequately. Gathering data poses methodological problems, but is imperative if the study of movements is to go beyond static description to analyze and explain processes of change.

Three types of comparative studies in this area are needed. There is a need for cross-cultural comparative studies. This research has special relevance for farmers' movements. The kinds of movements correlated with stages of agricultural and economic development are of inherent theoretical and pragmatic interest. Cross-cultural studies could test important theoretical ideas on the role of economic insecurity (as in one-crop economics) and political infra-structure in the emergence and growth of movements.

A second type of comparative study involves comparisons across movements of different types. This means comparisons across various farmers' movements and comparisons of farmers' movements with labor movements, farm workers' movements, the civil rights movement, student movements, etc.

A third type of needed comparative study involves studying organizations on a continuum of change, with a farmers' movement at one end and an established farm organization on the other. Such research is important to achieve the aforementioned integration of movement and organizational theory.

The transitory and often ephemeral nature of movements requires quick research response, particularly to obtain reliable knowledge on early stages of the movement. Because emergence of movements cannot at this time be predicted, research on early stages must often be immediate, informal, and lacking in elegance of design, execution and analysis. Special funds and personnel for research are not typically available in advance. Only if institutions sponsoring research and the researchers are flexible is optimally meaningful data gathered while the movement is in its earliest stages. Retrospective questioning and historical–reconstructive analyses are always possible and usually valuable, but they will never substitute for on-the-spot observations and questioning. Modern means of communication and transport combined with modern means of data recording such as tape recorders and motion picture cameras increasingly allow fruitful "firehouse" responses to movement activities. Such responses are encouraged as long as observational and questioning techniques are substantially thought out in advance and are relevant to scientific rather than journalistic concern. There is no reason why researchers should not fully exploit all feasible technology. For instance, both accuracy and efficiency of studies of road blockages, tractor brigades, group milk-dumping actions, and picketing actions might be improved through the use of aerial photographic techniques.

Henry Landsberger of Cornell University employs a unique method to use historical materials for "testing" general hypotheses about peasant movements. It consists basically of providing *historical* experts on various movements with a general *sociological* framework for analyzing the movement. This method might be extended to contemporary farmers' movements. Small, informed samples of movement participators, leaders, opponents, and bystanders could be given a framework of sociological hypotheses. They would be responsible for elementary recording and analysis of their activities in and observations on the movement within this framework. By this process one should gain valuable data for improving hypotheses, particularly if the method were applied comparatively across various movements. This method, systematically employed, might meaningfully combine the richness of qualitative data with the rigor of hypothesis testing.

Another useful approach is to study movement participators in a laboratory rather than in a field setting. Groups of movement participants or non-participants might systematically discuss their motives for participation or non-participation, their beliefs about goals of the movement, etc., under controlled and standardized conditions. Gaming techniques and computer simulation also offer research possibilities.

Data collection methods for studying movements, regardless of the stage of the movement, should be imaginative, varied, and flexible. Controversial issues and polarized opinions surrounding most movements often mean data cannot be collected in standard ways. The researcher attempting to gather data objectively may find movement participants allow observations and questions only to the extent that the researcher seems to be "on their side." Quasi-participant–observer roles seemingly required are not easily sanctioned by agencies currently supporting research in agriculture. Consequently, both ethical and strategic questions are difficult. However, movement participants and leaders are often anxious to be understood. They are often willing to talk openly to anyone, researchers included, who is interested enough to lend a reasonably sympathetic ear.

Surveys of persons inside and outside the movement, content analyses of movement documents and farm press editorials, ecological analyses, and election analyses have considerable potential for study of problems outlined in the previous two sections. "Snowball" sampling of movement and non-movement leaders (i.e., using known leaders to identify and contact other leaders) can be a fruitful technique for holistic analysis of movements.

Nearly all research on farmers' movements involves a relatively limited locale, seldom as large as the area of a state. Studies of such scope limit the extent and type of analysis done. A well–conducted, nation-wide study of farm organization (including movement-organization) membership and related background and attitudinal data may reveal more than previous research with smaller samples, particularly if the study builds meaningfully on questions and hypotheses raised in previous research.

The greatest methodological need is for systematic advanced planning of varied designs and techniques. These can be applied to various stages of a movement's development and subsequently refined on the basis of experience. Much current research is journalistic. It produces interesting information but provides little basis for building systematic scientific knowledge on crucial questions about movements.

Applied Sociological Research on Farmers' Organizations and Movements

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The term "applied" sociological research implies that there is another kind of research, namely "nonapplied," "basic," or "pure." The distinction usually has meant the latter categories address questions of relevance for development of general sociological principles or theory. "Applied" research deals with questions of relevance to laymen, regardless of import or implications for sociological theory. There is a basis for arguing, however, that these two categories do not necessarily require different kinds of research. Certainly the distinction is blurred when we consider the tools, techniques, and designs of research.

If adequate theories were available, sociologists could possibly speak of "applied sociology" rather than "applied sociological research." Those interested in solving specific, practical problems of farm organizations could simply apply the general principles of sociology just as an electrician, after some elementary fact gathering and diagnosis, can apply the laws of electricity to solve the problems of his clients.

In reality a consensus does not exist on the current state of development and utility of social theory nor on the role of research in problem–solving situations. Zetterberg argues that applied sociologists are not utilizing existent sociological theory, much of which is adequate for many consulting situations. Research is extremely expensive and clients are more likely to apply recommendations of theoretically–based consultation than they are to utilize advice emanating directly from research, he maintains.[1] Gouldner points to the scarcity of well-articulated and empirically supported theories. He points out that existing theories often have a static or "equilibrium" orientation that renders them unsuitable for solutions to problems involving socio-cultural change.[2]

Both positions contain arguments of merit. In applied work, theory and research are not "all–or–none" propositions. The emphasis a particular applied sociologist usually gives to theory or research *as his principal applied tool* is relative and not absolute. It is characteristic of scientists in relatively immature disciplines to rush to the field with research instruments every time they encounter "new" problems. The thoughtful applied sociologist will plan his strategy carefully. He knows his clients want economical solutions in the least possible time. His first step may be to examine existing concepts, principles, and theories (hopefully already researched) to find acceptable and workable solutions for the problem at hand. He recognizes that even highly theoretical notions of "pure" researchers are tested on specific data from movements and organizations. Inevitably such research provides information of practical value on or for these types of groups. The practitioner also searches for results of case studies involving solutions to practical problems to extrapolate the results to his case.

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[1] Zetterberg, Hans L., (1962), *Social Theory and Social Practice*, Bedminster Press, New York: 186-190.

[2] Gouldner, Alvin W., (1965), "Explorations in Applied Social Science," in Alvin W. Gouldner and S. M. Miller (eds.), *Applied Sociology: Opportunities and Problems*, The Free Press, New York: 7-8.

The applied sociologist looks for answers on the basis of existing theory and in results of basic or other research. He often finds existing knowledge inadequate for his purposes. Much sociological theory today is inadequate in conceptual and propositional structure and in degree and scope of empirical support. Even a theory adequate from a *scientific* standpoint (i.e., systematic, formally consistent, and empirically supported) may not be of *practical* value. The practitioner discovers that conditions for operationalization of many theoretical concepts or variables cannot be practically created. The applied sociologist often finds that some type of research is necessary.

This situation creates a responsibility and an opportunity for the applied sociologist to make contributions to the development of general sociological knowledge about movements and organizations. He can do so by formulating tentative answers to applied problems on the basis of existing theory, doing the necessary research, and subsequently relating the findings back to the theory. By formulating research according to theoretical principles and by relating his findings back to these principles, he contributes to development of theory. This process—*theory-oriented* applied research rather than *problem-oriented* applied research—is the most fruitful for theory *and* application.

Perhaps the clearest distinction between applied and basic research lies in the researcher's means–ends orientation to general principles and specific time–place–bound research findings. The applied researcher is interested in general principles *because* of their possible instrumental bearing on solving the problems that are his central interest. If his research informs general theory, this result is a useful *by–product*. The basic researcher is interested mainly in general principles. His specific findings are of interest to him mainly because of the way they bear on the principles. If his general principles or specific findings are relevant to concerns of laymen, this is a useful by–product.

Basic and applied research orientations describe end points of a continuum. In practice sociologists take positions along the continuum. There is no reason for a researcher to be clearly polarized. Particularly in the study of movements and organizations, those interested in basic or pure research discover that some *applied* emphasis is required to get support to do research and to obtain the rapport necessary to gain access to groups. Leaders and members of organizations and movements are not interested in sociological theory *per se*. Meaningful research often cannot proceed without close relationships with these groups.

TYPES OF AUDIENCES FOR APPLIED RESEARCH

Applied research usually is justified on the basis of "usefulness." We prefer to emphasize "relevance" for laymen as the central characteristic. Often there is no *one* specific audience for applied research. Findings useful to one party may have negative consequences for another, although both could agree on the "relevance" of the information to their interests.

Research questions about farm organizations and movements are usually relevant to laymen in three broad classes: (1) farm organization leaders, members, and non-member farmers; (2) agents, agencies, and institutions connected with agriculture who must relate directly to farm organizations, movements, and members ; and (3) the general public. Questions of relevance for the last category are likely to be quite general in nature. They are typically a basis for generating a broad range of "relevant information" for long-range formulation of public policies and opinions of various publics. Answers relevant to farm organization leaders and members are more likely to guide decisions on specific, immediate actions and changes. Farm organization leaders or leaders in the agricultural community typically ask questions of a researcher. The researcher himself usually determines questions relevant to interests of the general public.

This does not mean that questions a farm organization poses to a researcher necessarily are those he studies. According to Gouldner, two models are available to a researcher approached by a specific client such as a farm organization.[3] The *engineering model* is characterized by the client formulating the problem and asking the researcher to study it and advise. In the *clinical model* the "clinician" (researcher), after consultation with the client, makes an independent identification of the problem and develops research accordingly. In both instances the researcher has a specific responsibility to a client and is often supported by the client. Under the clinical model the researcher has more freedom to identify the basic problem. He may also have to convince or reassure his client that the research should be framed in the manner he describes.

To these we should add the *public model,* wherein a researcher is not approached by a client or does not respond to a single client. Rather, the researcher takes the initiative, perhaps by virtue of his role responsibilities or interests in a public institution. He asks questions relevant to general public interest rather than to any *particular* organization or agency.

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[3] *Ibid.*, 17-21.

Questions of Relevance to Leaders, Members, and Nonmembers of Farm Organizations and Movements

Perhaps the key areas of concern to leaders of farm organizations and movements are building and maintaining *large and loyal membership support.* Relevant research questions include:

1) What causes low attendance at meetings and lack of interest in policy development?

2) What motivates farmers to join and to participate?

3) Why are there differences in degree of membership participation and why do some farmers never join any group?

4) What causes dissension, dropouts, and reform movements among members?

5) Why do some farmers hold membership in more than one general farm organization and what are the effects of overlapping membership on loyalty and participation in each?

The search for *better organizational structures, procedures, and programs* is given high priority by farm organization leaders. There is need for evaluation of effectiveness of existing structures and programs and of proposed alternatives for change. In general, major questions are:

6) What goals and objectives are most realistic, attainable, and worthwhile for the organization?

7) What programs or methods can be used most effectively and efficiently to reach these goals and objectives?

8) How can various individual, county, state, and regional interests and opinions be accommodated within the same organizational structure?

Many leaders and members are concerned about *long–run prospects for agriculture,* in view of changing types and scales of farming enterprises and the changing structure of the entire food industry. For example:

9) How are agriculture generally and farm organizations specifically affected by the diminishing number of farms and farmers?

10) As the trend to vertical integration continues, what are the implications for farm organizations? What programs, structures, controls over members, etc., are necessary to assure farmers a voice in the changing power structure of agriculture?

Many farm organizations are interested in *assessing various characteristics of their members.* Relevant characteristics include:

11) Age, type and size of farm operation, socio-economic status, basic values, and attitudes and opinions regarding relevant issues.

Some organizations are concerned about *reaction of the general public* to their goals, policies and programs:

12) What is the public image of the organization or of farmers in general?
13) What is likely to be the consumer's reaction to bargaining efforts by farmers and to possibly higher food prices?
14) Will the public support certain types of farm programs?

Often there are problems relating to *development and education of leaders* within farm organizations. For example:

15) How can the potential for voluntary leadership among younger members be developed?
16) What kinds of in-service training are most effective? How should leadership training be provided for volunteer and professional leaders at all levels?
17) What kinds of paid, professional leaders are needed to assure successful competition with private firms performing similar services? How can farmers' distrust of this type of leadership in farm organizations be lessened?

Finally, members often are concerned about the *decision-making process* in their organization. They wish to know:

18) Who makes final decisions and how is policy made at various levels?
19) How can members be given greater voice in policy making?

Farm organization leaders and members generally do not express their needs in researchable propositions. Nor do they always correctly identify real problems. The task of the sociologist is to distinguish between symptoms and basic causes of problems and to design appropriate research if answers cannot be drawn from existing knowledge.

Farm organization leaders' concerns about obtaining and keeping strong membership support provide the basis for a brief discussion of an elementary hypothetical example of how applied research may profit from and contribute to a theoretical perspective. An organization leader poses the problem as simply, "How can we increase our membership?" or "How can we stop members from dropping out?" The researcher finds it fruitful to translate this problem into more general and abstract terms. Using elementary notions from social exchange theory and the notion of the cost–benefit ratio, the researcher reasons as follows: From the standpoint of an individual there is no benefit in joining a group if the individual gets what he wants (goals, aspirations, needs) without paying the various "costs" (money, time, energy, submission to organizational control, etc.) of organization membership and participation. This implies the hypothesis that, when costs are low in relation to benefits received, individual incentive for membership is highest.[4]

There are problems in developing the concepts and measures of "costs" and "benefits" in this context. Work on these problems makes a direct contribution to theory. There are theoretically relevant questions about the role of other variables (such as participation) in the scheme, exploration of the conditions under which the hypothesis is expected to hold, etc. (940). The researcher may attempt to study benefits the organization provides as well as costs as perceived by leaders, members, and nonmembers. He may study how participation in the organization influences the way members perceive benefits. He may find it fruitful to study the more general aspirations of members and nonmembers. Members may think their aspirations are obtainable more "cheaply" outside the context of membership in the organization (perhaps in other organizations).

Members may perceive benefits much differently and more positively than nonmembers. In this instance efforts to *inform* nonmembers of benefits seem appropriate. Nonmembers may be fully cognizant that the organization effectively provides its members certain things, but these are not what nonmembers desire, i.e., nonmembers do not define these things as "benefits." For instance, nonmembers may feel no need for fellowship or leadership opportunities provided by membership in a particular organization. (They may have "cheaper" alternative sources.) In this instance, information demonstrating "benefits" and lower membership costs will not recruit nonmembers. Shifts in organizational goals and activities are called for and of course these changes may be too expensive ideologically or too costly in terms of losing existing members to be attractive to leaders.

No one piece of research completely develops or tests the general hypothesis outlined above. However, if we had some general and empirically supported notions about how people evaluate various organizational benefits in relation to various organization costs and how these ratios relate to membership and participation, both applied sociology and sociological theory would gain.

Usually, when organization leaders ask questions they are looking for quick and easy solutions to their problems. Seldom do leaders think their problems should lead to research that may cause a basic reassessment of the organization's goals, means, and structure. Yet such considerations probably are essential for the long run benefit of organization and members. A theoretical perspective forces scrutiny of problems which goes beyond the immediate and the specific. A theoretical orientation forces the applied researcher to be socially responsible.

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[4] For relevant theoretical discussions of social exchange, see Homans, George Caspar, (1961), *Social Behavior: Its Elementary Forms*, Harcourt, Brace and World, New York: Chs. 3-4. An application of the idea of exchange to the process of participation can be seen in March, James G., and Herbert A. Simon, (1958), *Organizations*, John Wiley and Sons, New York: 83-88.

Questions for Agencies Dealing with Farm Organizations

College of agriculture administrators, extension personnel, various agribusiness groups, educators, and clergy in rural communities have more or less constant relationships with farm organization leaders and members. These groups often have specific needs for information about farm organizations in order to make these relationships meaningful.

With respect to *existence of farm organizations and relationships of members and leaders with other groups,* relevant and researchable questions might include:

20) To what extent do farm organizations and specific organizational programs develop because of gaps or shortcomings in programs of public and private agencies?

21) What are and what influences attitudes of farm organization members and leaders toward the Cooperative Extension Service, colleges of agriculture, the USDA, nonfarm groups such as labor organizations, political parties, schools, churches, nonfarm businessmen in rural communities, and various branches and agencies of state and federal government?

Agents and agencies in rural communities are concerned about *establishing meaningful relationships with the various farm organizations and movements:*

22) What types of information do organizational leaders and members need and desire of other agencies?

23) Are there organizational and leadership training and development needs and opportunities for farmers' groups that can be provided by extension and colleges of agriculture?

24) What ways can farm organizations help in disseminating technical and other information generated by colleges of agriculture, business groups, etc.?

Agencies and organizations frequently wonder about *their potential role in promoting cooperation and coalition between various farm organizations and between organizations and other groups.* Relevant questions may include:

25) What are the effects of competition between various farm groups? Can they accomplish more through cooperation and coalition?

26) If so, can colleges of agriculture or groups such as churches, schools, and rural businessmen provide information, facilities, or other services to promote such cooperation between farm organizations?

27) What types of relationships are desired and possible between farm organizations and food processors and retailers? What can agencies do to promote accommodations with justice for all parties?

Questions of Relevance to the General Public

The general public has the right to have accurate information to *intelligently interpret activities and programs of various farm organizations and movements.* For example:

28) How do activities such as holding actions or lobbying for or against legislation affect public interest?

29) What problems are encountered by farmers and their organizations in using power to obtain equitable returns while still providing a sufficient supply of food for the nation? What types of support can the general public give farm groups in accomplishing these goals?

Legislative and other policy makers in agriculture also need *objective information upon which to base decisions* that affect not only the farmer and his organization, but the general public as well:

30) What kinds of government help, control, enabling legislation, etc. are necessary and acceptable in developing viable farm organizations?

31) What types of organizational structures are acceptable or unacceptable to farmers? What types tend to be most successful or unsuccessful in reaching various goals in areas such as bargaining, lobbying, and education?

32) To what extent do activities, such as recruitment tactics, road blocks, sabotage in holding actions, or food adulteration, infringe upon the civil rights of individuals or upon the public interest?

33) To what extent are programs, tactics, and experiences of farm organizations relevant for export as part of the activities of U. S. foreign aid programs aimed at developing agriculture abroad?

Many questions in the previous two chapters of this bulletin also have direct, applied implications. There is no need to repeat questions about conditions under which reform movements in agriculture arise, their stages, etc.; such questions obviously qualify as being of considerable pragmatic relevance.

TYPES OF APPLIED RESEARCH DESIGNS

Applied research ranges from collection of simple and basically descriptive data to complex experimental designs. Many studies utilize more than one approach in the same project. Much of applied sociology is "library research" of accumulated sociological literature. It is possible that existing census materials and data card archives may hold answers to some questions, so that at times only data analysis, not original data gathering, need be performed by the applied sociologist.

The design probably used most frequently by the applied researcher is the *cross-sectional design*. In this type of design, the data are gathered at only one point in time, as in a survey of an organization's members or a survey of organization leaders in a county or state. Retrospective questions aimed at recalling past facts or attitudes and prospective questions aimed at measuring future behavioral intentions are used to introduce the time dimension. With *longitudinal designs* the data are gathered at more than one point in time so that changes and trends are analyzed.

Control groups, experimental groups, and experimental "treatments" are employed by the applied researchers *in experimental designs*, so that inferences of causality can be definitive. Experimental design can be utilized in combination with either cross-sectional or longitudinal design.

In the area of experimental design, applied research on farm organizations can make its greatest contribution to knowledge needs of organizations and sociological theory. Often the only sure way to know effects of various programs, differences in organizational structure or in leadership style, or differences in effectiveness of various recruitment procedures or procedures to stimulate participation is to do an experiment. Such designs provide the greatest confidence for the inferences made and thus the firmest basis for specific recommendations to organizations. Also, these designs provide the firmest basis for decisions about the validity of sociological theory.

An organizational researcher cannot perform experiments on organizations unless he has the kind of organizational support and rapport that allow him to manipulate and make important changes in organizations. Thus, there are good reasons why "pure" theoretical research on organizations cannot take place. A researcher who wants to study and experiment with organizations must take into account their needs and problems.

Developing countries seem to provide certain unique opportunities for experimental studies of farm organizations. Often these organizations are at very early and searching stages where they are not yet committed to specific kinds of programs, leadership structures, etc. They may be willing to cooperate in experimental designs to evaluate the efficiency and effectiveness of various ways of organizing. The long–established bureaucracies of farm organizations in developed countries may be so committed to certain programs and methods that they are unwilling to experiment. These same bureaucracies can, however, be extremely helpful in providing the kind of information and setting up the kinds of designs necessary to adequately carry out an experiment.

RESEARCH PROBLEMS AND OPPORTUNITIES

The difficulties of applied research on farm organizations and movements are several. Applied sociologists have access to considerable organizational information because of their rapport with leaders and members. How do organizational researchers resolve the problem of relating to various organizations when comparative studies are done, i.e., studies that compare characteristics or members or structures of various organizations? What part of the information, if any, should an applied organizational researcher agree will be confidential? What are the best mechanisms for feedback of research results to an organization?

Does an organizational researcher have the right to insist that information he discovers be fed back to members and leaders or do leaders have selective access to the information? There is no guarantee a given study will provide valuable information and no guarantee it will produce only or any pleasant results or positive recommendations. There are no set solutions to these problems, but they must be matters for explicit advance consideration, understanding, and perhaps written contract between researcher and organization(s).

The role of the organizational or movement researcher is not an easy one. As he approaches a group (or is approached) about research one of the first questions he is likely to be asked is some variant of, "Are you for us or against us?" The researcher must answer this question in a way that is satisfactory to leaders and members of the organization or he can not obtain the kinds of information he needs to answer his research questions. These persons seldom are willing to fully accept the objective and neutral image the researcher likes to project. On the other hand, he is seldom willing, personally or in terms of professional ethics, to commit himself to goals of a *specific* organization. If he does, his ability to do research on other organizations or perhaps his ability to do objective research on the given organization is jeopardized.

One of the reasons the above problems seem so difficult is that sociologists have had little experience with them. With few exceptions sociologists have stood mute on the organizational problems of agriculture. Other related social sciences, such as agricultural economics, have assumed dominant roles in applied research, consulted with farm organizations, and influenced private and public agricultural policies.

The time to demonstrate the utility of sociological knowledge and methods has never been more opportune from the standpoint of either sociology or agriculture. In commercially developed agricultural systems, as in the United States, problems of determining the most effective organizational structures for farmers remain an over-riding question. Problems of underdeveloped societies are even more acute as questions are raised about the relationship of agricultural organizations to the total social and economic development of society. Creative applied sociologists have many opportunities in the study of problems of agricultural organizations here and abroad. Maximization of these opportunities depends upon sociologists' developing appropriate skills and relevant sociological principles and at the same time re-examining their conceptions of what constitutes "proper" applied research roles.

Part II. A Bibliography of U. S. and Canadian General Farm Organizations and Movements

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